Operand Folding Hardware Multipliers

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Abstract. This paper describes a new accumulate-and-add multiplication algorithm. The method partitions one of the operands and re-combines the results of computations done with each of the partitions. The resulting design turns-out to be both compact and fast.

When the operands' bit-length m is 1024, the new algorithm requires only 0.194m+56 additions (on average), this is about half the number of additions required by the classical accumulate-and-add multiplication algorithm $\left(\frac{m}{2}\right)$.

1 Introduction

Binary multiplication is one of the most fundamental operations in digital electronics. Multiplication complexity is usually measured by bit additions, assumed to have a unitary cost.

Consider the task of multiplying two m-bit numbers A and B by repeated accumulations and additions. If A and B are chosen randomly (i.e. of expected Hamming weight w = m/2) their classical multiplication is expected to require w(B) = m/2 additions of A.

The goal of this work is to decrease this work-factor by splitting B and batch-processing its parts. The proposed algorithm is similar in spirit to common-multiplicand multiplication (CMM) techniques [1], [2], [3], [4].

 $[\]star$ most of the work has been done while this author was working at the Max-Planck Institut fűr Mathematik (MPIM Bonn, Germany)

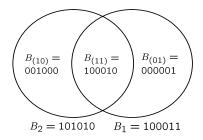


Fig. 1. Venn diagram of characteristic vectors

2 Proposed Multiplication Strategy

We first extend the exponent-folding technique [5], suggested for exponentiation, to multiplication. A similar approach has been tried in [3] to fold the multiplier into halves. Here we provide an efficient and generalized operand decomposition technique, consisting in a memory-efficient multiplier partitioning method and a fast combination method. For the sake of clarity, let us illustrate the method with a toy example. As the multiplicand A is irrelevant in estimating the work-factor (A only contributes a multiplicative constant), A will be omitted.

2.1 A Toy Example

Let $m = 2 \cdot n$ and $B = 101010100011_2 = B_2 ||B_1 = b_5^2 b_4^2 b_3^2 b_2^2 b_1^2 b_0^2 ||b_5^1 b_4^1 b_3^1 b_1^1 b_1^1 b_1^1 b_0^1$.

For $i, j \in \{0, 1\}$, set $B_{(ij)} := \{s_5s_4s_3s_2s_1s_0\}$ with $s_r = 1$ iff $b_r^2 = i$ and $b_r^1 = j$. That is, $B_{(ij)}$ is the characteristic vector of the column $(ij)^T$ in the 2 by $\frac{m}{2}$ array formed by B_2 and B_1 in parallel. Hence,

$$B_{(00)} = 010100, \ B_{(01)} = 000001, \ B_{(10)} = 001000, \ B_{(11)} = 100010.$$

Note that all of $B_{(00)}$, $B_{(01)}$, $B_{(10)}$, and $B_{(11)}$ are bitwise mutually exclusive, or disjoint. All these characteristic vectors except $B_{(00)}$ can be visualized in a natural way as a Venn diagram (see Fig. 1). Hence, B_1 and B_2 can be represented as

$$B_1 = \sum_{i \in \{0,1\}} B_{(i1)} = B_{(01)} + B_{(11)}, \ B_2 = \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}} B_{(1j)} = B_{(10)} + B_{(11)}.$$

Now, the multiplication of A by B can be parallelized essentially by multiplying A by $B_{(01)}$, $B_{(10)}$, and $B_{(11)}$; the final assembly of the results of these multiplications requires a few additions and shifts. Namely,

$$A \times B = A \times (2^n \cdot B_2 + B_1) = 2^n (A \times B_2) + A \times B_1$$

= $2^n (A \times B_{(10)} + A \times B_{(11)}) + A \times B_{(01)} + A \times B_{(11)},$

where $2^n \cdot z$ can be performed by an *n*-bit left shift of z.

All these procedures are summarized in Algorithm 1. Note that Algorithm 1 eliminates the need of storage for characteristic vectors by combining the partitioning into characteristic vectors and the parallel evaluation of several $A \times B_{(ij)}$ computations.

Accumulate-and-add multiplication by operand-folding in half

Input: m-bit integers A and $B = B_2 || B_1$, where $B_i = (b_{n-1}^i \cdots b_1^i b_0^i)$ and n = m/2 **Output:** $C = A \times B$

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\begin{array}{lll} 1 & C_{(01)} \leftarrow C_{(10)} \leftarrow C_{(11)} \leftarrow 0 \\ \text{2-1} & \textbf{for } i = 0 \textbf{ to } n-1 \textbf{ do} \\ \text{2-2} & \textbf{if } (b_i^2 b_i^1) \neq (00) \\ \text{2-3} & C_{(b_i^2 b_i^1)} \leftarrow C_{(b_i^2 b_i^1)} + A \\ \text{2-4} & A \leftarrow A \ll 1 \\ \text{3-1} & C_{(10)} \leftarrow C_{(10)} + C_{(11)} \\ \text{3-2} & C_{(01)} \leftarrow C_{(01)} + C_{(11)} \\ \text{4} & C \leftarrow (C_{(10)} \ll n) + C_{(01)} \end{array}
```

Suppose that both A and B are m-bit integers and each B_i is an $\frac{m}{2}$ -bit integer. On average, the Hamming weights of B_i and $B_{(ij)}$ are $\frac{m}{4}$ and $\frac{m}{8}$, respectively. For evaluating $A \times B$, Algorithm 1 requires $\frac{3m}{8} + 3$ additions without taking into account shift operations into account. Hence, performance improvement over classical accumulate-and-add multiplication is $\frac{m/2}{3m/8+3} \approx \frac{4}{3}$. In exchange, Algorithm 1 requires three additional temporary variables.

2.2 Generalized Operand Decomposition

Let B be an m-bit multiplier having the binary representation $(b_{m-1} \cdots b_1 b_0)$, i.e., $B = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b_i 2^i$ where $b_i \in \{0,1\}$. By decomposing B into k parts, B is split into k equal-sized substrings as $B = B_k || \cdots || B_2 || B_1$, where each B_i , represented as $(b_{n-1}^i \cdots b_1^i b_0^i)$, is $n = \lceil \frac{m}{k} \rceil$ -bits long. If m is not a multiple of k, then B_k is left-padded with zeros to form an n-bit string. Hence,

$$A \times B = \sum_{i=1}^{k} 2^{n(i-1)} (A \times B_i). \tag{1}$$

By Horner's rule, equation 1 can be rewritten as

$$A \times B = 2^{n} (2^{n} (\cdots (2^{n} (A \times B_{k}) + A \times B_{k-1}) \cdots) + A \times B_{2}) + A \times B_{1}.$$
 (2)

The problem is now reduced into the effective evaluation of the $\{A \times B_i | i = 1, 2, ..., k; k \geq 2\}$ in advance, which is known as the common-multiplicand multiplication (CMM) problem. For example [1, 2, 4] dealt with the case k = 2, and [3] dealt with the case k = 3 or possibly more. In this work we present a more general and efficient CMM method.

As in the toy example above, the first step is the generation of 2^k disjoint characteristic vectors $B_{(i_k\cdots i_1)}$ from the k decomposed multipliers B_i . Each $B_{(i_k\cdots i_1)}$ is n bits long and of average Hamming weight $n/2^k$. Note that, as in Algorithm 1, no additional storage for the characteristic vectors themselves is needed in the parallel computation of the $A \times B_{(i_k\cdots i_1)}$'s.

The next step is the restoration of $A \times B_j$ for $1 \leq j \leq k$ using the evaluated values $C_{(i_k\cdots i_1)} = A \times B_{(i_k\cdots i_1)}$. The decremental combination method proposed in [6] makes this step more efficient than other methods used in CMM. For notational convenience, $C_{(0\cdots 0i_j\cdots i_1)}$ can simply be denoted as $C_{(i_j\cdots i_1)}$ by omission of zero runs on its left side, and $C_{(i_k\cdots i_1)}$ can be denoted as $C_{(i)}$ where $(i_k\cdots i_1)$ is the binary representation of a non-negative integer i. Then $A \times B_j$ for $j = k, \ldots, 1$ can be computed by

$$A \times B_j = \sum_{(i_{j-1}\cdots i_1)} C_{(1i_{j-1}\cdots i_1)},$$

$$C_{(i_{j-1}\cdots i_1)} = C_{(i_{j-1}\cdots i_1)} + C_{(1i_{j-1}\cdots i_1)}, \quad \forall (i_{j-1}\cdots i_1).$$

Figure 2 shows the combination process for a case k=3 with Venn diagrams.

The last step is the application of Horner's rule on the results obtained from the above step. The overall procedure to compute $A \times B$ is given in Algorithm 2. Note that Algorithm 2 saves memory by recycling space for evaluated characteristic vectors, without use of temporary variables for $A \times B_i$.

Accumulate-and-add multiplication by generalized operand decomposition

Input: m-bit integers A and $B = B_k || \cdots || B_1$, where $B_i = (b_{n-1}^i \cdots b_1^i b_0^i)$ and $n = \lceil m/k \rceil$ Output: $C = A \times B$ 1 $C_{(i_k \cdots i_1)} \leftarrow 0$ for all $(i_k \cdots i_1) \neq (0 \cdots 0)$ 2-1 for i = 0 to n - 1 do

2-2 if $(b_i^k \cdots b_i^1) \neq (0 \cdots 0)$ 2-3 $C_{(b_i^k \cdots b_i^1)} \leftarrow C_{(b_i^k \cdots b_i^1)} + A$ 2-4 $A \leftarrow A \ll 1$

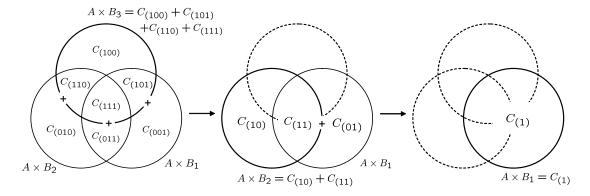


Fig. 2. Venn diagram representation for combination process when k=3

3 Theoretical Asymptotic Analysis

It is interesting to determine how the actual number of additions necessary to perform a multiplication decreases as parallelization increases. Neglecting the additions required to recombine the parallelized results, the number of additions tends to zero as the degree of parallelism k increases. The convergence is slow, namely:

$$\frac{\log k}{k} \sim \frac{\log \log m}{\log m}$$

since $k < \log m$ is required to avoid edge effects. In practice if the operand is split into an exponential number of sub-blocks (actually 3^k) the total Hamming weight of the blocks will converge to zero.

To understand why things are so, we introduce the following tools:

Let
$$\delta_0 \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$$
 and $\delta_{i+1} = \delta_i (1 - \delta_i)$ then

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} \delta_i = 0$$

More precisely, $\delta_i = \theta(\frac{1}{i})$ and

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \delta_i^2 = \delta_0 - \delta_n \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=0} \delta_i^2 = \delta_0$$

Let B have length b and density δ_i , i.e. weight $\delta_i b$. After performing the splitting process, we get three blocks, $B_{(10)}$, $B_{(01)}$ and $B_{(11)}$ of length $\frac{b}{2}$ and respective densities $\delta_{i+1} = \delta_i (1 - \delta_i)$ for the first two and δ_i^2 for $B_{(11)}$. The total cost of a multiplication is now reduced from $\delta_i b$ to

$$\delta_i b - \frac{\delta_i^2 b}{2}$$

In other words, the gain of this basic operation is nothing but the Hamming weight of $B_{(11)}$:

$$\frac{\delta_i^2 b}{2}$$

Graphically, the operation can be regarded as a tree with root B, two nodes $B_{(10)}$, $B_{(01)}$ and a leaf $B_{(11)}$. The gain is the Hamming weight of the leaf.

We will now show that by iterating this process an infinity of times, the total gain will converge to the Hamming weight of B.

3.1 First Recursive Iteration of the Splitting Process

Apply the splitting repeatedly to the nodes: this gives a binary tree having two nodes and one leaf at level one, and more generally 2^j nodes and 2^{j-1} leaves at level j. The gain $\gamma_{1,j}$ of this process is the sum of the weights of the $N_{1,j} = 2^j - 1$ leaves, that is:

$$\frac{b}{2}\sum_{i=0}^{j-1}\delta_i = \frac{b}{2}(\delta_0 - \delta_j)$$

As j increases we get an infinite tree A_1 , a gain of

$$\gamma_1 = \frac{b\delta_0}{2}$$

and a total weight of

$$W_1 = b\delta_0 - \frac{b\delta_0}{2} = \frac{b\delta_0}{2}$$

3.2 Second Recursive Iteration of the Splitting Process

We now apply the previous recursive iteration simultaneously (in parallel) to all leaves. Note that each leaf from the previous step thereby gives rise to $1+2+\ldots+2^s+\ldots$ new leafs. In other words, neglecting edge effects we have $N_{2,j}\approx N_{1,j}^2$.

The last step consists in iterating the splitting process i times and letting i tend to infinity. By analogy to the calculations of the previous section the outcome is an extra gain of:

$$\gamma_2 = W_2 = \frac{W_1}{2}$$

Considering W_t and letting $t \to \infty$, we get a total gain of:

$$\Gamma = \sum_{i} \gamma_i = 2W_i = b\delta_0$$

Thus a non-intuitive phenomenon occurs:

- Although $N_{i,j} \approx N_{1,j}^i$, eventually the complete ternary tree T is covered, hence there are no pending leaves.
- The sum of an exponential number of weights $(3^k \text{ with } k \to \infty)$ tends to zero.

3.3 Speed of Convergence

The influence of truncation to a level $k < \log n$ is twofold:

- The recursive iterations R_i are limited to i = k, thus limiting the number of additional gains γ_i to γ_k .
- Each splitting process is itself limited to level k, thus limiting each additional gain $\gamma_i, 1 \leq i \leq k$ to $\gamma_{i,k}$.

Let us estimate these two effects:

$$k < \log n - \log \log n \Rightarrow \Gamma_k = \sum_{i=1}^k < \delta_0 (1 - \frac{\log n}{n})$$

$$k > \log n - \log \log n \Rightarrow = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i - \gamma_{i,k} > (\log n - \log \log n) \min(\gamma_i - \gamma_{i,k})$$

But

$$\min(\gamma_i - \gamma_{i,k}) \approx \frac{1}{2n}(1 - o(1))$$

Hence the global weight tends to zero like $\theta(\frac{\log k}{k})$.

Table 1. Optimal k for F as a function of m

Optimal k	Range of m	$\frac{m}{2}F_{\text{avg}}(m,k)/F_{\text{avg}}(m,1)$	$mF_{\mathrm{wst}}(m,k)/F_{\mathrm{wst}}(m,1)$
2	$24 \le m \le 83$	0.375m + 3	0.500m + 3
3	$84 \le m \le 261$	0.292m + 10	0.333m + 10
4	$262 \le m \le 763$	0.234m + 25	0.250m + 25
5	$764 \le m \le 2122$	0.194m + 56	0.200m + 56

4 Performance Analysis and Comparison

Accumulate-and-add multiplication performance is proportional to the number of additions required. Hence, we analyze the performance of the proposed multiplication algorithm.

In step 2, as the average Hamming weight of each characteristic vector is $n/2^k$, where $n = \lceil m/k \rceil$, the number of additions needed to multiply A by $2^k - 1$ disjoint characteristic vectors in parallel is $(2^k - 1) \cdot \frac{n}{2^k}$ on average. In step 3, the computation of every $A \times B_i$ by combination of the evaluated characteristic vectors requires the following number of additions:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} 2(2^{i-1} - 1) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (2^{i} - 2) = 2^{k+1} - 2k - 2,$$

whereas the method used in [3] requires $k(2^{k-1}-1)$ additions. In step 4, the completion of $A \times B$ using Horner's rule requires k-1 additions. Therefore, the total number of additions needed to perform the proposed algorithm is on average equal to:

$$F_{\text{avg}}(m,k) = \frac{2^k - 1}{2^k} \cdot \left\lceil \frac{m}{k} \right\rceil + 2^{k+1} - k - 3.$$

On the other hand, $F_{\text{wst}}(m,k) = \left\lceil \frac{m}{k} \right\rceil + 2^{k+1} - k - 3$ in the worst case.

Performance improvement over the classical accumulate-and-add multiplication algorithm is asymptotically:

$$\lim_{m\to\infty}\frac{F_{\operatorname{avg}}(m,1)}{F_{\operatorname{avg}}(m,k)}=\lim_{m\to\infty}\frac{m/2}{\frac{2^k-1}{2^k}\cdot\left\lceil\frac{m}{k}\right\rceil+2^{k+1}-k-3}=\frac{k\cdot 2^{k-1}}{2^k-1}.$$

Larger k values do not necessarily guarantee the better performance, because the term $2^{k+1} - k - 3$ increases exponentially with k. Thus, a careful choice of k is required. The analysis of F_{avg} for usual multiplier sizes m yields optimal k values that minimize F_{avg} . The optimal k values as a function of m are given in Table 1.

Table 1 also includes comparisons with the classical algorithm for the both the case and the worst cases.

In modern public key cryptosystems, m is commonly chosen between 1024 and 2048. This corresponds to the optimum k=5 i.e. an 2.011 to 2.260 performance improvement over the classical algorithm and 1.340 to 1.560 improvement over the canonical signed digit multiplication algorithm [7] where the minimal Hamming weight of is $\frac{m}{3}$ on the average.

On the other hand, the proposed algorithm requires storing $2^k - 1$ temporary variables, which correspond to $O((2^k - 1)(m + n + k))$ -bit memory. Whenever $k \ge 3$, although optimal performance is not guaranteed, the new algorithm is still faster than both classical and canonical multiplication.

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A Hardware Implementation

```
LIBRARY IEEE; USE ieee.std_logic_1164.all; USE ieee.std_logic_unsigned.all;
ENTITY Mult_Entity IS
    GENERIC(CONSTANT m : NATURAL := 32;
           CONSTANT k : NATURAL := 2);
    PORT(A : in STD_LOGIC_VECTOR (m-1 DOWNTO 0);
        B : in STD_LOGIC_VECTOR (m-1 DOWNTO 0);
        C : out STD_LOGIC_VECTOR(2*m-1 DOWNTO 0));
END Mult_Entity;
ARCHITECTURE Behavioral OF Mult_Entity IS
    SIGNAL n : NATURAL := m+k-1/k;
    SIGNAL INPUT_LENGTH : NATURAL := n*k;
    SIGNAL OUTPUT_LENGTH : NATURAL := 2*INPUT_LENGTH;
    SIGNAL C_TEMP : STD_LOGIC_VECTOR(2*INPUT_LENGTH-1 DOWNTO 0);
    SIGNAL C_PARTS_LENGTH : NATURAL := INPUT_LENGTH+n;
    SIGNAL A_TEMP : STD_LOGIC_VECTOR(C_PARTS_LENGTH-1 DOWNTO 0);
    SIGNAL B_value : INTEGER;
    TYPE BX_TYPE IS ARRAY (k DOWNTO 1) OF STD_LOGIC_VECTOR(n-1 DOWNTO 0);
   SIGNAL BX : BX_TYPE;
    SIGNAL cx_count : NATURAL := 2**k-1;
    TYPE CX_TYPE IS ARRAY (cx_count DOWNTO 1) OF STD_LOGIC_VECTOR(C_PARTS_LENGTH-1 DOWNTO 0);
    SIGNAL CX : CX_TYPE;
BEGIN
Myproc : PROCESS(A,B)
    VARIABLE i, j : INTEGER := 0;
FOR i IN 1 TO k-1 LOOP BX(i)(n-1 DOWNTO 0) \leq B(i*n-1 DOWNTO (i-1)*n); END LOOP;
   BX(k)(m-(n*(k-1))-1 DOWNTO 0) \le B(m-1 DOWNTO m-n*(k-1));
IF ((m MOD k)>0) THEN BX(k)((n-1) DOWNTO (n-1-(m MOD k))) <= "0"; END IF;
A_TEMP (m-1 DOWNTO 0) <= A; A_TEMP (C_PARTS_LENGTH-1 DOWNTO m) <= "O";
For i IN 1 TO 2**k-1 LOOP CX(i) <= "0"; END LOOP;
--STEP 2-1
For i IN 0 TO n-1 LOOP
    B_value <= 0;
    FOR j IN 1 TO k LOOP
        IF ((BX(j)(i))='1') THEN B_value <= B_value + 2**(j-1); END IF;
    END LOOP;
--STEPS 2-2 and 2-3
   IF (B_value>0) THEN CX (B_value) <= CX (B_value) + A_TEMP; END IF;
   A_TEMP <= A_TEMP(C_PARTS_LENGTH-2 DOWNTO 0)&"0";
END LOOP;
--STEP 3-1
FOR i IN k DOWNTO 1 LOOP
--STEP 3-2
 FOR j IN 1 TO 2**(i-1)-1 LOOP
--STEP 3-3
   CX(2**(i-1)) \le (CX(2**(i-1)) + CX(2**(i-1)+j));
```

```
--STEP 3-4
   CX(j) \le (CX(j) + CX(2**(i-1)+j));
 END LOOP;
END LOOP;
--STEP 4-1
C_TEMP (C_PARTS_LENGTH-1 DOWNTO 0) <= CX(2**(k-1));</pre>
C_TEMP (n-1 DOWNTO C_PARTS_LENGTH-1) <= "0";
--STEP 4-2
FOR i IN k-1 DOWNTO 1 LOOP
--STEP 4-3
    C_{TEMP} \leftarrow C_{TEMP}(2*m-1-n DOWNTO O) & "O";
--STEP 4-4
    C_{TEMP} \leftarrow C_{TEMP} + CX(2**(i-1));
END LOOP;
END PROCESS Myproc;
C <= C_TEMP;</pre>
END Behavioral;
```